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Inclusion versus Institutionalization: Japan's Educational Challenge
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Abstract

Japan has been undergoing educational reforms as social changes continually spur especially with the advent of globalization. With special needs children in its populace, the country lays down its own educational paradigm. This aims to discuss the two scenarios in the Japanese educational system, the inclusion and the institutionalization, which serve as answers to the schooling dilemma of children with disabilities. Inclusion is a confusing issue since it is not explicitly stated in the nation's public education rulings but in practice, there is inclusion. On the other hand, institutionalization is aptly considered concrete as it is seen in segregated environment in special schools and in therapeutically – oriented classes. This posits a challenge to the Japanese government in keeping track with the new era. Rich and firm in cultural aspects, Japan has all the reasons to concede onwards for the best interest of the special children's educational provisions.

Inclusion versus Institutionalization: Japan's Educational Challenge

Introduction

Japan, known to be one of the big powers in the world, unbelievably, has not allocated educational provisions appropriated to the needs of children with disabilities in due course. It is not because they do not acknowledge the existence of such children. It is more of an existing priority in cultural dimensions. The episodes in their historical maneuverings to put up their country in the pedestal where it is standing for many years now established a philosophical nurturance of education in the spirit of sound mind and body. The country devoted its efforts along this field for the physical and skill empowerment of its citizens in preparation to building human fortress against rival forces in invasion. Time has slowly eradicated this practice. With due acknowledgment for the presence of children with disabilities and in recognition to global admonition for their placement in the general education classrooms, Japan is facing a new challenge. The Japanese system of education is enduring changes in conformity to international trends and to the welfare of its citizenry.

In this new era of educational reform, Japan has to withstand and convene to discuss with its people the real score concerning the education and its services for children with disabilities. As a nation standing in unity opposite life's oddities, Japan lays down its fundamental response to the accomplishment of responsibilities which any state owes to its citizens. Educational benefits are compiled through the comprehensive rights of children with disabilities, as the conceptual paradigm of inclusion is placed in consideration as compared to the gains from which institutionalization offers. Japan's approaches confronting the issues in the education of the children with disabilities intensify the historical evaluation of change as it constantly plays its part in mankind's territorial domains. Each scene

is unmistakable. The Japanese government equates the indigenous procedures towards the education of its special children. These extensive, candid, and legal practices are contributory factors in settling future conflicts as the country slowly faces the educational challenge for these children in the multitude.

Historical Background of Education for Children with Disabilities

During the 17th century, the country was still a samurai society. Schools for samurai and private schools called *Terakoya* (Temple School) were the ones in existence in the education sector; however, there was no national educational system. Children of common people studied in *Terakoya* and it was found out that those schools catered to persons with disabilities as well. 11 of 45 *Terakoya*, which were interviewed, had disabled students (Otsutake, 1929; Nakano and Kato, 1967). They were mainly the blind, deaf, speech disorder, and some physical disabled children (Takuma, Ochiai, and Munekata, 2000). Unfortunately, the education and welfare of those children with disabilities were generally very inadequate even with the extensive Western countries' influences and the concerned persons' efforts to follow the western world's example (Arakawa, 1994). In 1868, much had been altered. A centralized government, likewise, a centralized educational system was put up (Abe, Trelfa, Crystal, and Kato, 1999) to make Japan militarily strong and economically prosperous. Temple schools were no longer in their operative functions. Compulsory education for children with disabilities was not introduced and institutions, which could accommodate them, were very few. Many of them were left in their homes (Arakawa, 1994). The first blind and deaf school in Kyoto built in 1878 initiated the education for the special needs people. Tokyo followed in 1880. Such schools gradually spread in various places. In 1907, 38 schools, which were mostly private, catered to blind and deaf students who had a total population of 1,700 (Arakawa, et. al, 1976). In 1896, *Takinogawa Gakuen*, an institution for persons with mental retardation was built. The founder tried to educate and train them on the physiological method of Sequin. From that time to the *Showa Period* (1926 – 1989), similar institutions were established as part of social work. To cite, in 1926, the first institution for the physically handicapped, the *Kashiwa Gakuen*, was built. Practically, institutions were impoverished and supported largely by donations.

As political democratization rose, the educational world advocated reformation under the ascendancy of the new education movement started by the western countries. The democratic climate made possible the circulation of the idea of the rights of those people with disabilities. The education and welfare of the handicapped in America were introduced in support to their rights, as quoted, "blind and deaf are also members of the nation and have rights to education too" (Kawai, 1993). In 1923, the blind and deaf – mute schools were segregated from each other. The prefectures were given an obligation for the establishment of such schools. Through it, the percentage of school attendance of the blind and deaf children increased. It went up from 15% to 50%. Special classes began to spring up. For instance, the *Forderklass* or *Hilfsklass*, a special class patterned from Germany, was organized to cope up with the problem of the inferior children. Moreover, outside public education, some institutions were built which educated and took care of persons called idiots or feebleminded and crippled (Arakawa, 1994).

The wartime structure crushed the education and lives of the children with disabilities. For the purpose of accomplishing feats, the educational council was set up in 1937, reorganizing the education system. With the notion of giving utmost priority to what one can do to help the nation as it faces tough times, Japan's children with disabilities had their share of fate. Though the recommended compulsory education for the blind and deaf and the education benefits of other children with disabilities in special classes or schools were recognized formally, the war prevented the conduction of such necessity. Responding to meet the needs of the children with disabilities, *Biwako Gakuen Hospital* was constructed as a residential type of institution, which provided the residents with a place to live, education to develop, and medication to survive. During this period, school management for children with disabilities became most distressed (Umene, 1974). Consequently, only 30% of schools for the handicapped could

continue teaching during the wartime, and schools that could begin classes again in 1945 represented only 64% (Shimizu, 1989).

After World War II, the system of education and welfare for the children with disabilities moved on to develop further with hopes and aspirations. To date, the present Japanese educational system including special education, was established legally in the latter half of the 1940's. The quality and conditions of education throughout the country remain relatively equal (Moriyoshi & Trelfa, 1999). The Constitution Law stipulates the basic right to education; likewise, the Fundamental Law of Education states the principle of equal opportunity. Those who are physically and mentally disabled are guaranteed the right to an education in accordance with the type and extensiveness of their disability. To every extent possible, maximum effort is made to have these children achieve independence. Based on this, education for those with mental retardation, and health impaired was also provided. However, education for other children with disabilities was not subjected as compulsory until 1979 because before that year only a few special schools existed and were available to them. The special classes in the regular schools were reserved for those with minor disabilities. Most of the students with moderate to severe disabilities were denied access to the public schooling (Mogi, 1994). The national government gives higher priority to promoting the national economy rather than to developing equal opportunity of education for children with disabilities. The government improves the educational conditions as far as the national economy permits (Tamamura, 1994).

The Issue of Conformity

The School Education Law stipulates that special schools are part of the general education system (Takuma, Ochiai, & Munekata, 2000). These authors feel that special schools are totally different from ordinary schools. The categorization paradigm brought about by the idea that all children might have special educational needs in some settings is where perception is strongly based. Under the provisions of the School Education Act, teachers trained specifically to teach children with special needs are providing children with extensive disabilities with finely tailored education. Those with lesser disabilities are provided with the appropriate form of education for each individual in regular primary and junior high schools. In Japan, special education schools refer to the collective term for schools for the blind, schools for the deaf, and schools for other disabilities (see Table 5). Education is rendered to suit the needs of each child. An exchange of classes in which children from special education schools and children from regular schools will mingle in activities and clubs are being considered. This would serve the twin purposes of enabling children with special needs to broaden their experience while imparting to other children a better understanding of children who have disabilities. Recently, some educational boards have implemented open curriculum system in schools, which have flexible arrangements different from the traditional practice. Although not a nationwide system, several types of integration exist in Japan. One of these is the Mini – Special Schools. This structure of integration shares one school ground and facilities. In this environment, children with disabilities visit ordinary classrooms with their teachers and join in the classroom activities. The same routine is also done in ordinary classrooms. A special class system is another locational integration system. These sub – schemes are located within ordinary or lower secondary education schools. Another type of integration is implemented in ordinary classrooms which projects greater possibility of advancement is through a team – teaching approach based on the principal's decision. This has been well developed in the Kansai area of Japan since 1978.

The implementation of part – time special classes, as part of the formal education system has been a distinctive feature of innovation. In principle, it is for students with moderate disabilities allocated in mainstream classrooms with periods in special classes depending upon their needs. They attend general subjects in ordinary classrooms and receive specialized training in special classes to overcome their disabilities and improve their general life skills. Furthermore, number of laws set guidelines for the creation of therapeutically oriented classes where mentally retarded, physically

handicapped, physically fragile, visually impaired, hearing impaired, or having other physical or psychological problems judged to be appropriate for special education are catered. Supplementary instruction for each subject and special guidance essential for psychological and physical problems are given to special needs children through attendance in a room within the place, which they call as resource room. Students with milder forms of disabilities are, as much as possible, mainstreamed into regular settings.

Along with the level of education, instruction provides students with knowledge and skills to cope with their disabilities. Generally, the children placed in special schools are those with severe disabilities. In such manner, various institutions are available for the active treatment and training of children, as homes, in accordance with the degree of disability, and as centers for assisting with employment and promoting social participation. These include facilities for children with physical and mental disabilities, nursery homes, and institutions for children with auditory/ speech disabilities, nurseries for infants with hearing difficulties, and facilities for children with severe cases of disabilities. Admission to these welfare institutions is free if the parents' income is below a certain level. These might appear smooth sailing, as the different institutions tend to solve problems and people affected on these matters submitted in obedience to the government's policies. However, some teachers and parents demand that children with special needs be placed in regular classes regardless of their ability to benefit support services and regardless too on the effect of such integration to others in the class. They insist that children with disabilities are surely learning in this respect while keeping company with a wide range of people under normal circumstances. They reject special services for their children because it leads to a segregated situation (Tamamura, 1994). A clear point that could be seen in this aspect is the lack of adequate support services in the regular settings for children with disabilities. It is estimated that 3% or 4% of disabled children are dumped in regular classes (Mogi, 1992). With no other choice left to the advocates who wished for their children to gain advantageous effects from socialization, they opted to even set aside the learning considerations their children should get. Socialization is one important element in life. One could never have it in segregated settings. Institutions for certain group, for labeled identities are bars against the advancement of individuals. They are visibly within the chambers, waiting in solitude. It appears that the special and regular education system develop independently and further apart. This scenario creates a big difference. Students without disabilities have little or no experience at all in interacting and building friendships with students who have disabilities. On the other hand, students in special schools have limited opportunities to associate with those who are attending regular schools (Elikins, 1994). It appears that what predominates in Japanese classrooms is in question of meeting the needs of students.

Indeed, today's education for children with disabilities, especially those severe or profound cases, gained a remarkable change. They often receive home – visiting education services which are done twice a week for two hours a day by one teacher in accordance with the guidelines for home – visiting education (Tamamura, 1994). Quite notably this may be, yet, this act is not enough to remedy deeper needs. In the advent of the global adherence to inclusion of children with disabilities in the general education settings, more views were speculated. Along this line of reflection, the pros and cons of the traditional special education and the international dynamism of inclusive environment were studied. In 1988, a research was conducted on deaf students' educational history. It showed that 39.4% of them had not enrolled in School for the Deaf. They had education in ordinary education system. The scope and targets of inclusion stimulated thought – provoking responses from educators and parents. Airing their hearts' desire, they began seeking for governmental support to call for educational reformation.

Measures/ Actions

The Japanese government does its great bulk of responsibility towards the education and general welfare of children with disabilities. It assures a special education for children who have difficulties attending regular classes or unlikely to make educational progress through regular classes due to their disabilities, with full consideration to the type and degree of disability. It opened, special courses for children with visual impairments, children with hearing impairments and children with physical disabilities, in addition to special classes in elementary and lower secondary schools. In such courses, classes are kept small, teachers with skills, experience and knowledge are posted, and further insights are cautiously considered to make institutions and facilities disability – friendly.

With regards to financial matters, the government provides an allowance covering part, sometimes all of the expenses involved in the education of children with visual impairment, hearing impairment, and those with physical disabilities depending on their guardian's income capacity. For the travel expenses of these special children, the government justifies the means. The government does include in its program the day care for children with disabilities who receive special child rearing allowance. Nurses are posted to care and admit large number of special needs children on a daily basis in day care centers. It works too in promoting sports for those with physical and mental disabilities. In addition, it supports their cultural activities and encourages the construction of theatres and concert halls that are disability – friendly. To use its skills and experiences in measures dealing with children with disabilities, the government extends technical cooperation such as inviting rehabilitation experts and instructors from developing countries to Japan as trainees, and dispatching Japanese experts and Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers, likewise, the government holds international seminars and conducts training courses for rehabilitation specialists in Asian countries. Furthermore, it contributes to the United Nations Voluntary Fund on Disability where Japan ranks as the third largest contributor in the world, it aids the projects implemented by the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, and it grants assistance to NGO projects in developing countries for the protection, welfare, and education of the children with disabilities. From the citations rendered, the country shows that it abides in international relations by subsidizing the trends in which its cooperation was reflected.

To this, one can say that laws establish the educational rights of children with disabilities. This is true in Japan. However, along this governance are lapses superseding a twist of fate. The advocacy by practice lags behind. The government's provision for such undertakings does serve its purpose but to an extent of better quality in the totality of life of its constituents, implementation of integration of special needs children in the regular settings has to be given credit in the education system. The changes must reach the school education system and make the government accountability clear on support for children with special needs (Tamamura, 1994). The Committee on the Rights of the Child notes with concern the insufficient measures taken by the State party, notwithstanding the principles laid down in the Fundamental Law for People with Disabilities, 1993, which ensures effective access of these children to education and to facilitate their full inclusion in the society (Takuma, Ochiai, & Munekata, 2000). Children with disabilities are extremely heterogeneous groups. They have highly specialized educational needs. Child development cannot be achieved by services alone. There is a need to re – focus on what the enabling community and families are through and had contributed. The large gap mainstream and disability services in Japan (Elikins, 1994) tend to move at different angles, which in the real sense are ineffective to the clientele. Mainstreaming intends to flow in inclusive course, but its limited scope of projections is inclined to deprive human equality. Therefore, it is only fair to consider what aptly benefits this study. While inclusion brings out hope for the social adaptiveness of children with disabilities, institutionalization carries the wonders technology holds. Inclusion is geared towards reality; institutionalization gives the practicality aspect of resolving dilemma in school for children with disabilities. Inclusion exists but is not recognized. Institutionalization is motivated but places risk on social attachment. A brighter aspect of living for these children are gauged and attributed to social

orientation and social performances, which an inclusive environment promises to uphold. To this, the key informants affirm (see Table 1).

Methods

This pursuit engages in survey – questionnaire distributed within the Hiroshima Prefecture, Japan. The study was conducted in random sampling of Japanese educators from both private and public sectors with 21.28% and 78.72% respondents respectively (see Table 3).

The study aims to find out exactly which of the educational ideologies and practices presented, the inclusion or the institutionalization, is favored by the masses as presented by the key informants. This endeavors to establish a pattern beneficial to children with disabilities. Furthermore, this seeks a guiding premise.

The subjects for this study were 47 teachers from the kindergarten, elementary, and the middle schools (see Table 2). The survey was comprised of 19.15% male respondents and 80.85% female respondents. Taken into account were the ages of respondents (see Table 3). Likewise, the length of teaching experience and position to secure spontaneity of ideas and perceptions (see Table 4). Such factors credit a mature study on the level of awareness, on attitudinal beliefs, and reliance on strength of issues persistent in the changing society.

The questionnaire was originally written in English language and translated in Japanese language for farther and clearer comprehension of the clients. The questionnaire employed in this study was developed by the main author and translated in Japanese language by the co – author (see Appendix A). A pool of special education experts from Hiroshima University validated the questionnaire. With a computed validity coefficient of 0.72 and reliability coefficient of 0.78, it had been used to measure the result of this survey, inclusion versus institutionalization.

The administration of the survey – questionnaire was done through postal mailing services and a thorough follow – up was also conducted to increase the number of respondents. An explanation on the differences between inclusion and institutionalization was written in the cover letter. The survey – research has twenty (20) statements from which the respondents choose for each item the practical and best educational approach, and the survey was conducted for two months, March and April 2003.

Results of the survey were tabulated by computing the percentiles (values that divide a set of observations into 100 equal parts) based from the actual number of respondents.

Results and Discussion

The concurring details purport that the Japanese educational system recognizes the feature concerning the immensity of accountability ascribed to the general well – being of children with disabilities. The existing practice mirrors the country's withstanding bureaucratic ties and it attest their strong cultural manifestations. The people are not easily charmed and swayed by contemporary shifts although they always update themselves of what are taking place around the world. Whatever it is that they put into particulars and endorsement, they sharpen to improve and polish to the best of their abilities. From such observation, ponder, and examination it is not a wonder why institutionalization dominantly prevail in the structural cognitive level. The identification of a child's degree of disability capacitates the organization system where the child will not become a burden to society. Different institutions are patronize all over the country to resolve difficulties in matters of general welfare and education of this special child. A child with hearing impairment goes to be educated in the deaf school, in the same manner as a blind child attends classes in the school for the blind.

Instantly, one might perceive and judge that Japan's education for children with disabilities is showcased in the institutionalization category. It looks as if the lives of special needs children are confined to the kind of institution where they are placed to be educated and trained aside from receiving treatment and care from any of the structured edifices where facilities tend to render services.

Such remarks are opinionated and derogatory. Time is slowly eradicating the past arrangement. Today's pleas include the voices for an appropriate and adequate educational support services for the placement of the special children in the general education classrooms. Many are anticipating that the movement for transformation will soon be given an opportunity to materialize and flourish. This call for modification is a contemplative act towards inclusion in the educational system. Researches conducted by concerned Japanese citizens, specifically, the educators, are proceeding to the realization of the program. In Japan, the inclusion of children with disabilities is not a new principle per se. It has been carried on in regular schools years ago. The vexation of realization centered on a full governmental help without which, nothing could be gained. In fairness, the Japanese government gives importance to the welfare and education of children with disabilities but the plan and strategy of fulfillment are differentially comforting. The heightened sensation is an enough motivation to alter traditional practices. People are now speaking in behalf of these children. The survey discloses the knowledge wanting so much to be shared and to let grow in spirit. Inclusion garners 69.04%, institutionalization contends to 30.96% (see Table 1). Herewith, to fully impart the degree of awareness and attitudes of the respondents, following explanations for each criterion inclusion stipulates were properly furnished to make the subject clear:

1. It gives a comprehensive educational program catering appropriately the needs of children with disabilities.
2. This opens involvement of families through communication and relationship towards educational benefits of children with disabilities.
3. Develops positive skills, which would add to personality growth.
4. Signifies the importance and value of family – orientation in consonance to individuality.
5. Imparts parents involvement for their children's welfare as they hoped to be the first and last figures of linkages when things are swaying and assurances are needed.
6. This pertains to the embodiment of a cordial classroom environment where all are equal regardless of any differences.
7. This is a setting where motivations excellently produced competitive children without prejudice to any distinctions.
8. It enhances peer relationships essential to happiness and dealings of children with disabilities.
9. It portrays "becoming one with the group" as learning sessions go on in its various phases.
10. It means, with the presence and love of families, acceptance of peers, care of the community, and challenges designed to outsmart fragilities, insecurities have no place.
11. Showcases ample support networks including the facilities and the teachers' role for children with disabilities.
12. It is an environment that places trust on the person to do what he can do for the good of himself in accordance to social context.
13. It aims to refine self-composure in any social functioning of children with disabilities.
14. This pertains to the functional involvement of the community where the child belongs, to which, he/she is encouraged to have a social participation.
15. It provides a place where children are not threatened, endangered, maltreated, or injured in any other forms. A place where conducive learnings are enjoyed and benefited by all.
16. It builds aspirations from day to day performances.
17. It uplifts courage, the morale of children with disabilities.
18. It improvises various activities that would strengthen relationships, alert senses, improve abilities beyond expectations.
19. It constructs friendship with peers that spring forth belongingness.
20. It is an approach where comparative studies are looked upon considering even the minute details accorded with it.

It is high time to fully support inclusion. Its existence in Japan has to be lawfully governed. A

legal provision will totally make a great difference in the lives of children with disabilities. Inclusion assumes more of the responsibility of providing education to these children whose ideas and experiences are critically helpful to developing greater successful public policies. To pilot a change is to abide relevant regulations. Japanese people are famous in such adherence. Concerned citizens started perpetuating principles pursuant to a call for transformation. To point out, a team from Hiroshima University conducted an experimental approach of inclusion, hoping for the implementation and its realization (Ochiai & Jimenez, 2002). They recommended the following:

1. Request the Japanese government thru the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology to implement full inclusion of the handicapped children.
2. Ask the Board of Education of each prefecture to support the full implementation of the inclusion program.
3. Conduct farther trainings for the Special Education teachers and teacher – to be in the field of Special Education.
4. Include courses/ programs/ subjects offered in the universities leading to the realization of inclusion program.
5. Formulate special laws related to inclusion of children with disabilities in the regular class.
6. Strengthen the rights of the parents to organize and choose corresponding schools for their children.
7. Develop community awareness through dissemination of information about the existing programs.
8. Have representations from the various sectors of society in the policy making body.
9. Educate the parents and let them get involve for the upliftment of learning of their children.
10. Educators should actively participate in different activities for the development of children with disabilities.
11. Encourage lawmakers, educators, researchers, government and non – government organizations, etc. to give strong support for the full implementation of the inclusive education program.
12. Integrate the LD/ ADHD students through collaborative partnerships as the last remedy towards full inclusion.

The notion that the situation of Japanese education is not moving sufficiently toward integration or inclusion will then be abandoned (Ochiai, 2001). Upholding a new transition towards reform and persevering in ideals and customs, Japan will have another milestone performance. Upon promulgation of enactments, children with disabilities will be integrated in regular schools with appropriate and adequate support services. A strong nation like Japan does not play hide and seek with its citizens especially with those who are at disadvantaged bearings. It seeks remedies to cease apprehensions on placements of children with disabilities in the regular classrooms. To sustain, children with disabilities are never blots in the identity of any Japanese citizen. They are part of the universal crowd resembling any race, anywhere with a lifetime chance to be great contributors in the world's accolade as inclusion brings out the invisibility of others to everybody's view (Jimenez, Ochiai, and Funatsu, 2003).

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Table 1***Statements with Corresponding Percentiles in Inclusion versus Institutionalization***

Statements	Inclusion	Institutionalization
	(%)	(%)
1. develops comprehensive individualized educational programs	36.17	63.83
2. involves the family in setting educational goals	51.06	48.94
3. promotes self-enhancing behavior	78.72	21.28
4. enhances individual's social participation in the family	93.62	6.38
5. parents play active roles in making decisions for children's development	70.21	29.79
6. supportive learning environment to which diversities are valued	80.85	19.15
7. helps children exhibit high level of competence	44.68	55.32
8. promotes individual's interaction with peers	100.00	0
9. integrates individuals into various learning environments	80.85	19.15
10. eliminates life's insecurities	72.34	27.66
11. designs effective instructional settings	34.04	65.96
12. creates environment that help increased independence	76.59	23.41
13. exhibits high level of integrity	48.94	51.06
14. encourages individual's social participation in the community	93.62	6.38
15. maintains a safe environment where universal precautions are practiced	53.19	46.81
16. develops realistic expectations for personal behavior	76.59	23.41
17. helps develop individual's self – esteem	70.21	29.79
18. engages various activities challenging individual's capacity	78.72	21.28
19. fosters harmonious relationships with peers	93.62	6.38
20. promotes successful transitions for individual's learning needs	46.81	53.19
Total	69.04%	30.96%

(n = 47)

Table 2
Number, Percentage, and Educational Assignment Level of Teachers

Grade/ Year	n	Percentage
Kinder	17	36.17
Grade I	2	4.26
Grade II	5	10.63
Grade III	2	4.26
Grade IV	2	4.26
Grade V	5	10.64
Grade VI	2	4.26
1 st Year Middle School	3	6.38
2 nd Year Middle School	2	4.26
3 rd Year Middle School	7	14.89

(n = 47)

Table 3
Number and Percentage of Teachers' Age, Gender, and Type of Schools

Age	n	Percentage
20 – 29 years old	14	29.79
30 – 39 years old	8	17.02
40 – 49 years old	15	31.91
50 – 59 years old	10	21.28
Gender		
Male	9	19.15
Female	38	80.85
Type of Schools		
Private Schools	10	21.28
Public Schools	37	78.72

(n = 47)

Table 4
Number and Percentage of Teachers' Length of Teaching Experience and the Position

Length of Teaching Experience	n	Percentage
0 – 9 years	17	36.17
10 – 19 years	13	27.66
20 – 29 years	11	23.40
30 – 39 years	6	12.77
Position		
Classroom Teacher	38	80.85
Assistant Principal	2	4.26
Principal	2	4.26
Special School Supervisor	1	2.12
Others	4	8.51

(n = 47)

Table 5***Number, Type of Institutions (by category), and the Number of Students***

Type of Institutions	Number of Institutions	Number of Students
Schools for the Blind		
National	1	181
Public	68	3,720
Private	2	100
Total	71	4,001
Schools for the Deaf		
National	1	272
Public	105	6,493
Private	1	64
Total	107	6,829
Schools for the Other Disabled		
National	43	2,614
Public	763	77,958
Private	12	670
Total	818	81,242

Source: FY 2001 Basic Survey on Schools (reported by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology).

Appendix A

以下の項目についてお答えください：障害のある子どもたちにとって、それぞれの項目を実行する場合、どの場所で学ぶのが最も良いかお答えください。どちらか一方の（ ）の中に○印を入れて下さい。

回答欄

質問項目	インクルージョン	固定型教育
1.総合的な個別の教育計画を作る	()	()
2.教育目標を保護者とともにたてる	()	()
3.向上心を育てる	()	()
4.社会参加を促す	()	()
5.保護者が子どもの発達を促すために積極的な役割を果たす	()	()
6.多様性に価値を置く学習環境が作ることができる	()	()
7.高い能力を示すことができる	()	()
8.友達との交流の促進	()	()
9.様々な学習環境への適応	()	()
10.独立心を高める	()	()
11.効果的な授業案を作る	()	()
12.独立心が高まる環境が作れる	()	()
13.完全性を追求する心	()	()
14.地域への社会参加を促進する	()	()
15.安全な環境作りとその維持	()	()
16.現実的な期待を持つようになる	()	()
17.自尊心を育てる	()	()
18.様々な場面に参加して、自分の能力を伸ばすチャレンジが行える	()	()
19.仲間との調和的關係を促進する	()	()
20.ニーズにあった教育のうまい引き継ぎ	()	()

ご協力ありがとうございました。